

When moult overlaps migration: moult-related changes in plasma biochemistry of migrating common snipe (#12317)

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When moult overlaps migration: moult-related changes in plasma biochemistry of migrating common snipe

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Moult of feathers entails considerable physiological and energetic costs to an avian organism. Even under favourable feeding conditions, endogenous body stores and energy reserves of moulting birds are usually severely depleted. Thus, most species of birds separate moult from other energy-demanding activities, such as migration or reproduction. Common snipe *Gallinago gallinago* is an exception, as during the first autumn migration many young snipe initiate the post-juvenile moult, which includes replacement of body feathers, lesser and median wing coverts, tertials and rectrices. Here, we evaluated moult-related changes in blood plasma biochemistry of the common snipe during a period of serious trade-off in energy allocation between moult and migration. For this purpose, concentrations of basic metabolites in plasma were evaluated in more than 500 of young snipe migrating through Central Europe. We found significant changes in the plasma concentrations of total protein, triglyceride and glucose over the course of moult, while the concentrations of uric acid and albumin did not change. Total protein concentration increased significantly in the initial stage of moult, probably as a result of increased production of keratin, but it decreased to the pre-moult level at the advanced stage of moult. Plasma triglyceride concentration decreased during the period of tertial and rectrice moult, which reflected depletion of endogenous fat reserves. By contrast, glucose concentration increased steadily during the course of moult, which could be caused by increased catabolism of triglycerides (via gluconeogenesis) or, alternatively, due to increased glucocorticoids as a stress response. Our results suggest that physiological changes associated with moult may be considered important determinants of the low pace of migration typical of the common snipe.

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Molt of feathers entails considerable physiological and energetic costs to an avian organism. Even
15 under favourable feeding conditions, endogenous body stores and energy reserves of moulting birds are
16 usually severely depleted. Thus, most species of birds separate molt from other energy-demanding
17 activities, such as migration or reproduction. Common snipe *Gallinago gallinago* is an exception, as
18 during the first autumn migration many young snipe initiate the post-juvenile molt, which includes
19 replacement of body feathers, lesser and median wing coverts, tertials and rectrices. Here, we evaluated
20 molt-related changes in blood plasma biochemistry of the common snipe during a period of serious
21 trade-off in energy allocation between molt and migration. For this purpose, concentrations of basic
22 metabolites in plasma were evaluated in more than 500 of young snipe migrating through Central
23 Europe. We found significant changes in the plasma concentrations of total protein, triglyceride and
24 glucose over the course of molt, while the concentrations of uric acid and albumin did not change.
25 Total protein concentration increased significantly in the initial stage of molt, probably as a result of
26 increased production of keratin, but it decreased to the pre-molt level at the advanced stage of molt.
27 Plasma triglyceride concentration decreased during the period of tertial and rectrice molt, which
28 reflected depletion of endogenous fat reserves. By contrast, glucose concentration increased steadily
29 during the course of molt, which could be caused by increased catabolism of triglycerides (via
30 gluconeogenesis) or, alternatively, due to increased glucocorticoids as a stress response. Our results
31 suggest that physiological changes associated with molt may be considered important determinants of
32 the low pace of migration typical of the common snipe.

33 INTRODUCTION

34 Moulting is a process by which the birds maintain feathers in good quality, which improves birds' flight
35 performance and enhance thermoregulation. However, synthesis of feathers is one of the most
36 physiologically costly events in the annual cycle of birds and it requires substantial stores of nutrients in
37 body (*Murphy, 1996*). While the apparent nutrient and energy costs of moult associated with deposition
38 of materials in new feathers may be relatively mild when compared with the costs of maintenance or
39 reproduction (*Murphy & King, 1992*), the process of moult requires a wide spectrum of metabolic
40 adjustments that are not directly related to plumage synthesis. These additional metabolic process
41 include recrudescence of the integument, cyclic osteoporosis, and an increased whole-body protein
42 turnover, which may combine to create daily energy costs of peak moult exceeding 50% of basal
43 metabolic rate (*Murphy & King, 1992*). In fact, the energy deposited daily as keratins in feather was
44 estimated to equal only ca. 10% of the energy costs of moult and much higher energy costs were
45 associated with protein metabolism not directly related to keratin synthesis (*Murphy & Taruscio, 1995*).

46 The biochemical analysis of blood is a technique widely used to indicate avian body condition
47 and to investigate physiological processes during different phases of life. In general, plasma metabolites
48 reflect various aspects of physiological condition and characterize the feeding state of birds. Total
49 protein and triglyceride levels reliably indicate nutrient status of wild and captive birds (*Jenni-Eiermann
50 & Jenni, 1998; Jenni-Eiermann, Jenni & Piersma, 2002; Albano et al., 2016*), although triglyceride levels
51 may also vary in relation to environmental conditions and stress (*Artacho et al., 2007; Ibañez et al.,
52 2015*). Glucose level in plasma decreases during periods of fast and, thus, may serve as an indicator of
53 short-term changes in food intake (*Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni, 1998; Totzke et al., 1999; Alonso-Alvarez et
54 al., 2002*). Numerous studies indicated that glucose levels positively correlated with different
55 components of condition or with a broadly-defined individual quality (*Alonso-Alvarez et al., 2002; Minias
56 & Kaczmarek, 2013*). High level of plasma glucose are also associated with increased glucocorticoids as a

57 stress response (Mondal *et al.*, 2011), although this relationship may be obscured by the processes of
58 protein catabolism, gluconeogenesis, and insulin regulation (Ramage-Healey & Romero, 2001; Cyr *et al.*,
59 2007). Plasma concentrations of nitrogenous excretion components, such as uric acid, increase
60 substantially in response to starvation, when tissue proteins are actively mobilized as a source of energy.
61 Plasma concentration of uric acid is a good indicator of condition, especially when individuals have low
62 fat reserves, which rapidly activates protein catabolism during food shortage (Villegas *et al.*, 2002).
63 Finally, low albumin concentration may reflect acute diseases and chronic infection or inflammation,
64 which may result from decreased allocation of resources to the immune function (Hörak *et al.*, 2002).

65 The presented literature shows that changes in blood plasma biochemistry may well serve to
66 evaluate physiological costs of moult. Earlier studies investigated changes in plasma biochemistry during
67 moult in captive birds (Dolnik & Gavrilov, 1979; Murphy & King, 1984) and others in wild-living but
68 flightless birds (Ghebremeskel *et al.*, 1989; Cherel, Charrassin & Challet, 1994). However, few, if any,
69 papers have examined moult-related changes in plasma biochemistry of wild birds during migration.
70 Most avian species separate moult from other energy-demanding activities, such as migration or
71 reproduction, but several species of birds have been reported to show a moult-migration overlap to a
72 varying degree (Pérez-Tris *et al.*, 2001; Rohwer *et al.*, 2009), including the common snipe *Gallinago*
73 *gallinago* (Podlaszczuk *et al.*, 2016). Adult common snipe start post-breeding moult at breeding grounds,
74 as soon as they conclude reproductive activities, and continue moulting during migration. Young
75 common snipe typically begin the partial post-juvenile moult during their first autumn migration,
76 although probably some individuals can delay moulting until arrival at wintering grounds (Podlaszczuk *et*
77 *al.*, 2016). The post-juvenile moult of the common snipe is more extensive and, thus, more energetically
78 expensive than in other waders, as it includes replacement of body feathers, lesser and median wing
79 coverts, tertials, and rectrices (Włodarczyk *et al.*, 2008; Minias *et al.*, 2010a). In these respects, the
80 common snipe provide a good opportunity to study moult-related changes in blood plasma biochemistry

81 during a period of serious trade-off in energy allocation. The aim of this study was to determine
82 physiological consequences of moult in migrating common snipe. For this purpose, we measured plasma
83 concentrations of basic metabolites in over half a thousand of moulting and non-moulting young
84 common snipe at their final phase of migration through Central Europe.

85

86 METHODS

87 Study site and species

88 Common snipe were captured at the Jeziorsko reservoir (51°40'N, 18°40'E), central Poland, during
89 autumn migration (04 August – 25 September) to the south-west. Jeziorsko reservoir is one of the most
90 important stopover sites for migrating waders and waterfowl in inland Poland, due to the water
91 management policies which ensure considerable seasonal oscillations of water level. In autumn, water
92 level at the reservoir decreases at a constant rate, continuously exposing new areas of mudflats, which
93 provide abundant food resources and attract large flocks of migrating waders. The maximum
94 concentrations of common snipe at the site exceed a thousand of individuals in August (*Janiszewski et*
95 *al., 1998*).

96 The common snipe breeds in low Arctic and boreal zones throughout entire Palaearctic, and
97 migrates to the wintering grounds in South-Western Europe (*Cramp & Simmons, 1986*). As indicated by
98 ringing recoveries, common snipe migrating through inland Poland originate mostly from Central
99 Russian populations (Fig. 1; *Minias et al., 2010b*). Although common snipe also breed in Poland and
100 neighbouring Central European countries, we have no evidence that local individuals use Jeziorsko
101 reservoir as a fuelling site prior to autumn migration, as they probably depart on migration before the
102 suitable feeding habitats (mudflats) start to appear at the reservoir (usually in early or mid-August).
103 While the common snipe is known to migrate according to the strategy of energy minimization, which is
104 characterized by the low pace of migration and frequent stopovers (*Włodarczyk et al., 2007*), Jeziorsko

105 reservoir is likely to be one of the last staging sites for birds wintering in France and other West-
106 European countries.

107


108 **General field procedures**

109 In total, we caught 1007 ~~first-year~~ common snipe during seven migration seasons (2009-2015). Snipe
110 were captured in walk-in traps and mist nets, occasionally with vocal stimulation. All birds were ringed
111 and aged according to plumage (*Kaczmarek et al., 2007; Włodarczyk et al., 2008*). The sex of birds was
112 determined either molecularly (in 2009) from blood samples, following protocols developed by *Kahn,*
113 *John & Quinn (1998)*, or by morphological measurements, using discriminant equations developed for
114 the same migratory population of the common snipe (*Włodarczyk et al., 2011*). For sexing by
115 morphology, bill length and distance between the tips of two outermost rectrices were measured with
116 calipers (± 0.1 mm) and the vane length of the outermost rectrix was measured with a ruler (± 1 mm).
117 Fieldwork was performed ~~under the annual~~ permissions from the Regional Environmental Protection
118 Directorate in Łódź, Poland. Catching, ringing, and handling birds was performed ~~under individual annual~~
119 ~~permissions for ringers by~~ the Polish Academy of Sciences, with ~~an~~ approval of the Ministry of
120 Environment in Poland and General Environmental Protection Directorate in Poland.

121

122 **Recording moult**

123 In all captured snipe we quantified the stage of post-juvenile moult. During post-juvenile moult snipe
124 change their natal feathers (body feathers, lesser and median wing coverts, tertials, and rectrices) to an
125 adult-type plumage (Fig. 2). Thus, when post-juvenile moult is completed, ~~first-year~~ birds become
126 indistinguishable from adults based on the plumage characteristics. However, few young birds (if any)
127 finish their post-juvenile moult before they reach wintering grounds. Throughout ~~seven~~ years of study
128 we captured only 43 individuals in fresh, (recently moulted) adult-type plumage, most of which were

129 probably adults. All these birds were excluded from analyses. The remaining young birds were classified
130 into one of three moult categories: 1) pre-moult (no feathers moulted); 2) initial stage of moult (only
131 body feathers and wing coverts in active moult); 3) advanced stage of moult (tertials or rectrices in
132 active moult).  exact moult progress was also quantified for birds that moulted tertials or rectrices.
133 For this purpose, each tertial (n = 8) and rectrix (n = 14) was given a moult score according to the feather
134 scoring system developed by *Ashmole (1962)*, where: 0 – old feather, 1 – old feather missing or a new
135 feather in a pin, 2 – new feather up to one third grown, 3 – new feather between one and two thirds
136 grown, 4 – new feather more than two thirds grown, 5 – new feather fully developed. A sum of all moult
137 scores for individual feathers was used as a general moult score (max. 110, when all tertials/rectrices
138 were renewed).

139

140 **Plasma biochemistry**

141 About 50% of captured young snipe (n = 538 individuals) were selected for plasma biochemistry
142 measurements. Between 20 and 40 µl of blood was collected from the ulnar vein of each bird into
143 heparinized capillary tubes. Blood sampling was performed ~~under temporal~~ permissions of the Local
144 Bioethical Commission in Łódź, Poland. Samples were centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 5 min within an hour
145 of collection to separate plasma from blood cells, and kept at -20°C until analysis. Plasma metabolite
146 concentrations (total protein, albumin, triglycerides, glucose, and uric acid) were analysed with a
147 spectrophotometer (BTS-330, BioSystems Reagents & Instruments, Barcelona, Spain) using commercial
148 kits of the same manufacturer (BioSystems Reagents & Instruments, Barcelona, Spain). All analyses were
149 conducted according to the manufacturer protocols using the following methods: total protein (biuret
150 reaction), albumin (bromocresol green), triglycerides (glycerol phosphate oxidase/peroxidase), glucose
151 (glucose oxidase/peroxidase), and uric acid (uricase/peroxidase). Absorbance of each sample was
152 measured in a flow cuvette against a blank reagent at the following wave lengths: 500 nm (glucose,

153 triglycerids), 520 nm (uric acid), 545 nm (total protein), and 630 nm (albumin). Run-to-run repeatability
154 (R) and linearity limits (LL) were specified as follows: total protein (R: 1.85%; LL: 150 g/L), albumin (R:
155 1.90%; LL: 70 g/L), triglycerides (R: 2.15%; LL: 600 mg/dL), glucose (R: 2.3%; LL: 500 mg/dL), and uric acid
156 (R: 2.00 %, LL: 25 mg/dL). The applied biochemical methods followed the standard methodology used in
157 avian studies (e.g. *Artacho et al., 2007*). Since the amount of plasma collected from each birds was often
158 not sufficient to measure all five plasma biochemistry parameters, sample sizes for each parameter are
159 different (Table 1). Distributions of all plasma metabolite concentrations were reasonably close to
160 normal (skewness: 0.08 – 0.69) and were not ~~subject to any transformations~~.

161

162 **Statistical analyses**

163 Differences in plasma biochemistry parameters between consecutive stages of post-juvenile moult were
164 analysed with the general linear models (GLMs), separately for each parameter. In each model, we
165 controlled for the effects of sex, year, date of capture (Julian day), and hour of capture. Date was
166 **standardized to equal unit variances (z-scores) within each season** to account for annual variation in the
167 timing of migration. For birds at the advanced stage of moult, we also used GLMs to investigate the
168 effect of moult score on plasma metabolite concentrations. In these models, the general moult score
169 calculated for tertials and rectrices was entered as a covariate. To obtain more parsimonious reduced
170 models, we removed non-significant ($p > 0.15$) predictors from initial full models. All statistical analyses
171 were performed with Statistica 10.0 (StatSoft, Tulsa, OK, USA). All values are presented as means \pm SE.

172

173 **RESULTS**

174 43.7 % of young common snipe showed signs of post-juvenile moult ($n = 538$). Most moulting snipe
175 (74.9 %, $n = 235$) were at the initial stage of moult, while the remaining 25.1 % were at the advanced
176 stage of moult.

177 Plasma concentrations of total protein and glucose differed significantly between the
178 consecutive stages of post-juvenile moult (Table 2, 3). Total protein concentration was significantly
179 higher at the initial stage of moult (35.57 ± 0.52 g/l) when compared to the pre-moult stage ($33.33 \pm$
180 0.42 g/l; Tukey test: $p < 0.001$; Fig. 3a) and to the advanced stage of moult (32.62 ± 0.90 g/l; Tukey test:
181 $p = 0.011$). There was no significant difference in the total protein concentration between the pre-moult
182 and advanced-moult stages (Tukey test: $p = 0.67$; Fig. 3a). By contrast, glucose concentration was higher
183 at the advanced stage of moult than during the pre-moult stage (511.6 ± 20.6 mg/ dl vs. 454.8 ± 7.1
184 mg/dl.; Tukey test: $p = 0.039$; Fig. 3b). Snipe at the initial stage of moult had an intermediate
185 concentration of glucose (Fig. 3b). Other plasma parameters showed no variation with the moult stage
186 (Table 4). Only triglyceride concentration in plasma changed with the moult score of snipe that moulted
187 tertials or rectrices ($F_{1,61} = 4.10$, $p = 0.047$), and it significantly decreased during moult of tertials and
188 rectrices ($\beta = -0.29 \pm 0.14$; Fig. 4). The other plasma parameters (total protein, albumin, glucose, and uric
189 acid concentrations) showed no variation related to the moult score of tertials and rectrices (all $p >$
190 0.05).

191

192 DISCUSSION

193 Concentrations of total protein, triglycerides and glucose in plasma changed significantly during the
194 post-juvenile moult of the common snipe. At least some of these changes in blood plasma biochemistry
195 are likely associated with the use of energy and nutrients during plumage synthesis or during other
196 moult-related metabolic processes, which greatly contribute to the overall costs of moult (e.g.
197 vascularization of integument or alterations to bone metabolism; *Murphy & King, 1992*).

198 Total protein plasma concentration increased significantly in the initial stage of moulting but fell
199 later during the advanced stage of feather replacement, returning to the low pre-moult level. Snipe have
200 probably the highest protein demand at the beginning of moult, due to the rapid acceleration of keratin

201 synthesis for feather production and other metabolic processes associated with early phases of moult,
202 such as vascularization of the active feather follicles, pulp formation, and an increase of erythrocytes
203 (*deGraw & Kern, 1985; Murphy & King, 1992*). It has been shown that deposition of protein as keratins of
204 feathers may equal a quarter or more of the total protein mass of the bird (*Newton, 1968; Murphy &*
205 *Taruscio, 1995; Roman et al., 2009*). Production of keratin depends largely upon sulphur containing
206 amino acids (cysteine and cystine), which, thus, may be critical for plumage synthesis. For example,
207 *Murphy & King (1984)* showed that moulting white-crowned sparrows *Zonotrichia leucophrys gambelii*
208 require large amounts of glutathione, which primarily consists of sulphur containing amino acids.
209 However, besides playing a role in feather synthesis, plasma proteins have a variety of immunological
210 and transport functions and are important indicators of nutritional state and health of a bird (*Jenni-*
211 *Eiermann & Jenni, 1996*). Plasma proteins also carry a range of metabolites (*Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni,*
212 *1996*). Reduction of total protein content is an indicator of many pathological changes (malnutrition), as
213 proteins contribute to a pool of amino-acids for protein synthesis and can act as a source of energy
214 (*Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni, 1996*).

215 Our findings are similar to those of *Dolnik & Gavrilov (1979)* who found that total protein level
216 increased at the initial stage of moulting in the chaffinch *Fringilla coelebs*, which was due to intensive
217 synthesis of protein as material for new feather production. This initial rise was followed by a decrease
218 over the next stages of moult, similarly as in our study. A decrease in total protein concentration during
219 moult was also recorded in seabirds (*Work, 1996*), passerines (*Newton, 1968; deGraw & Kern, 1985*),
220 ducks and geese (*Driver, 1981; Roman et al., 2009*). Other studies showed that the level of total protein
221 was significantly higher after moult than during feather replacement (*Thompson & Drobney, 1996*).
222 Nevertheless, *Ghebremeskel et al. (1989)* found total plasma protein to be significantly lower in the
223 post-moult than the pre-moult stage in rockhopper *Eudyptes crestatus* and Magellanic penguins
224 *Spheniscus magellanicus*. Species vary in their baseline protein level and this may result from variations

225 in the supply of amino acids and energy. Most species rely mostly on their diet to meet the growing
226 demand for protein during moulting, but some birds, such as penguins, which do not feed during moult,
227 use endogenous nutrients to synthesize feathers (*Cherel, Charrassin & Challet, 1994*). While it remains
228 unknown whether the common snipe primarily use endogenous or exogenous nutrients for feather
229 synthesis, it was found that snipe depend on endogenous energy from adipocyte cells during moult
230 period (*Minias et al., 2010a*). The decreased levels of plasma total protein observed during the final
231 stages of moult result from an ongoing protein accumulation in feathers or muscles, as well as from less
232 intensive synthesis in the liver (*Roman et al., 2009*). At the advanced stage of moult, some proteins
233 obtained with food could be also catabolized into amino acids and keto acids, and then used primarily as
234 energy or for synthesis of fatty acids (*Artacho et al., 2007*).

235 Plasma triglycerides are a well-known indicator of malnutrition or fasting, and their
236 concentration decreases rapidly even during overnight fasting (e.g. *Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni, 1996; Jenni
237 & Schwilch, 2001; Jenni-Eiermann, Jenni & Piersma, 2002*). We found that plasma triglyceride levels
238 decreased in moulting common snipe, which is consistent with previous findings that fat reserves of
239 snipe decreased by ca. 50% between the initial and final stages of the post-juvenile moult (*Minias et al.,
240 2010a*). The decreasing plasma triglyceride level observed during moult is probably an indicator of
241 increasing problems with food supply. To satisfy high energy demand, snipe rely on their fat reserves
242 (*Minias et al., 2010a*) and probably on catabolised protein obtained from dietary sources. Birds
243 catabolise fat reserves to compensate for energy deficiencies in food intake, which is especially likely
244 during such energy-demanding processes as moult (*Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni 1996; Klasing 1998; Jenni &
245 Schwilch, 2001; Jenni-Eiermann, Jenni & Piersma, 2002; Artacho et al., 2007*). A number of studies
246 showed that the level of metabolized energy increases during the initial stages of moult, but decreases
247 in the next phases of moult and finally settle at a level below initial values upon moult completion

248 (Newton, 1968; Myrcha & Pinowski, 1970; Dolnik & Gavrilov, 1979; Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni, 1996;
249 Artacho et al., 2007).

250 In contrast to triglycerides, plasma glucose concentration in the common snipe steadily
251 increased from the start of the moult until its advanced stage. Glucose is the main product of the
252 carbohydrate metabolism and it is obtained from the diet. Some studies indicate that high body
253 condition is associated with increased glucose level (Minias & Kaczmarek, 2013). A decrease in glucose
254 level in birds could be an indicator of short fasting periods (Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni, 1994, 1997),
255 however, in some species plasma glucose concentration negatively correlated with body mass (Kaliński
256 et al., 2014). During starvation, glucose is produced from stored glycerol and amino acids or by
257 gluconeogenesis (Herzberg et al., 1988) and may also occur as a stress-induced hyperglycaemia with
258 increased glucocorticoids (Remage-Healey & Romero, 2001).

259 There are two likely explanations for the increasing levels of plasma glucose during moult in the
260 common snipe. First, snipe use their fat reserves during moult (Minias et al., 2010a), which is supported
261 by decreasing plasma triglyceride concentrations and, thus, the increasing glucose level may be an effect
262 of the catabolism of triglycerides, stored in adipocyte cells. During lipolysis, the triglycerides are split
263 into monoacylglycerol units which are converted to free fatty acids and glycerol. Glycerol can be then
264 metabolised into glucose by conversion into dihydroxyacetone phosphate and then into glyceraldehyde
265 3-phosphate in the process of gluconeogenesis (Herzberg et al., 1988). Consequently, we cannot exclude
266 that increasing catabolism of fat may simultaneously elevate plasma glucose levels during moult.

267 The second reason for increasing plasma glucose concentration may be associated with elevated
268 levels of corticosteroids. Glucocorticoids increase glucose level by working as an insulin antagonist and
269 stimulating lipolysis in adipose tissue, which results in an increase in plasma free fatty acids and glycerol
270 levels (Remage-Healey & Romero, 2001; Ramenofsky, 2011). Several studies have shown that
271 glucocorticoid activity is associated with migration (Landys, Ramenofsky & Wingfield, 2006; Ramenofsky,

272 2011) and high levels of plasma corticosterone have been well documented in many long-distance
273 migrants (*Falsone, Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni, 2009; Landys-Ciannelli et al., 2002; Reneerkens et al., 2002*).
274 Thus, it seems likely that migrating young common snipe may show higher levels of corticosterone
275 required for the maintenance of migratory condition (*Ramenofsky, Piersna & Jukema, 1995; Holberton,*
276 *1999; Landys-Ciannelli et al., 2002; Reneerkens et al., 2002; Falsone, Jenni-Eiermann & Jenni, 2009*). On
277 the other hand, there is no agreement on how corticosterone level is affected by moult. While baseline
278 and stress-induced levels of corticosterone were lower during moult in the common starlings *Sturnus*
279 *vulgaris* (*Romero & Remage-Healey, 2000*), some other studies suggested that corticosterone
280 suppression is not a prerequisite for synthesis of high-quality feathers (*Buttemer, Addison & Astheimer,*
281 *2015*). Regardless of the mechanism responsible for plasma glucose regulation in moulting common
282 snipe, both pre-moult and moult levels of plasma glucose in snipe were very high when compared to
283 glycemic levels in other bird species (*Prinzinger & Misovic, 1994; Beuchat & Chong, 1998*). This suggests
284 that plasma glucose concentration in moulting snipe was above the threshold of glycemic requirement
285 and may not be indicative of catabolic compromise.

286 In conclusion, our study indicates significant changes in blood plasma biochemistry during the
287 post-juvenile moult in the common snipe. These changes, which indicate high nutritional and
288 physiological costs of moult, might be among the primary determinants for the low pace of migration in
289 this species. The common snipe minimizes energy expenditure during autumn migration, a strategy
290 characterized by low refuelling rates, accumulation of small fat reserves, and migrating by short
291 migratory “hops” between a large number of stopover sites (*Włodarczyk et al., 2007*). Our results
292 suggest that physiological changes associated with moult and a trade-off in energy allocation between
293 moult and migration may prevent the common snipe from adopting migration strategy of energetically-
294 expensive long-distance migratory flights.

295

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300

301 **Data Deposition**

302 The raw data has been supplied as a Supplemental Dataset.

303

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Figure 1: Map of ringing recoveries from common snipe migrating through inland Poland. Ringing sites are marked with yellow triangles, spring/summer recoveries are marked with blue dots, and autumn/winter recoveries are marked with green dots. Figure adapted from *Minias et al., (2010b)*.

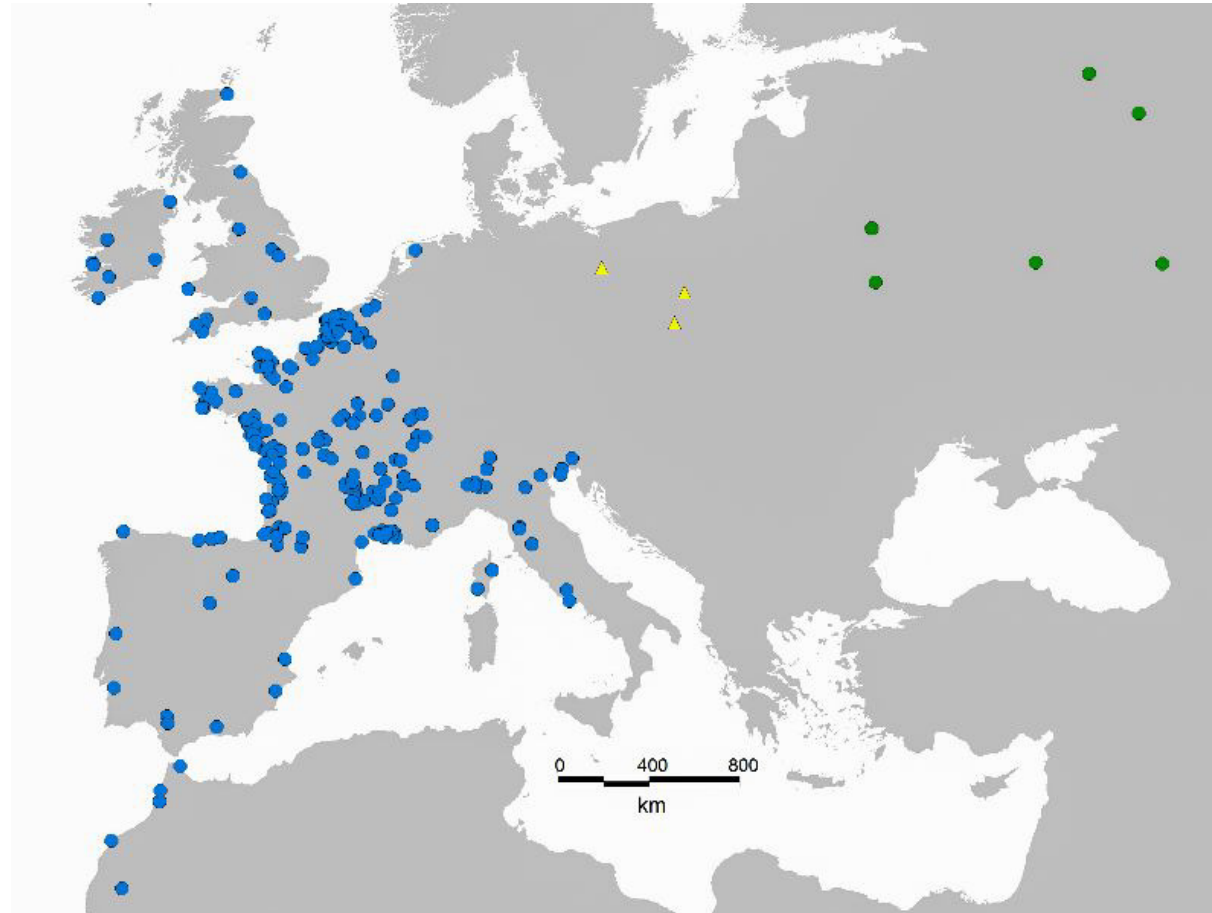


Figure 2: The extent of the post-juvenile moult in wing and tail of the common snipe. Plumage areas marked by white contours are moulted. LC – lesser wing coverts, MC – median wing coverts, TR – tertials, R – rectrices.



Figure 3: Changes in plasma concentrations of total protein (a) and glucose (b) between the consecutive stages of post-juvenile moult in young common snipe migrating through central Poland. Means \pm SE are presented.

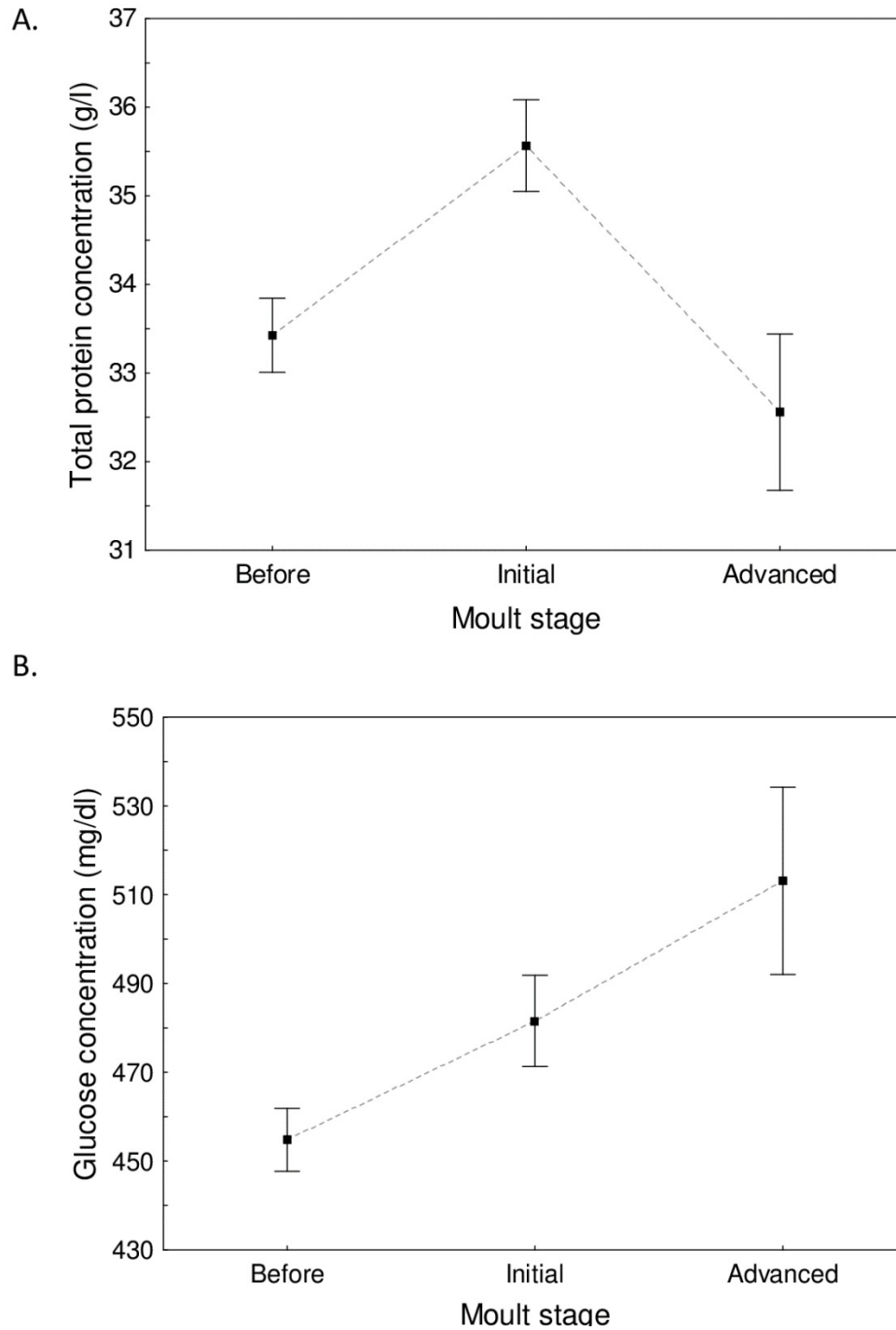


Figure 4: Changes in plasma triglyceride concentration with moult score of young common snipe in the advanced stage of post-juvenile moult. The line indicates a fitted regression ($y = -0.29*x + 78.13$; $R^2 = 0.063$).

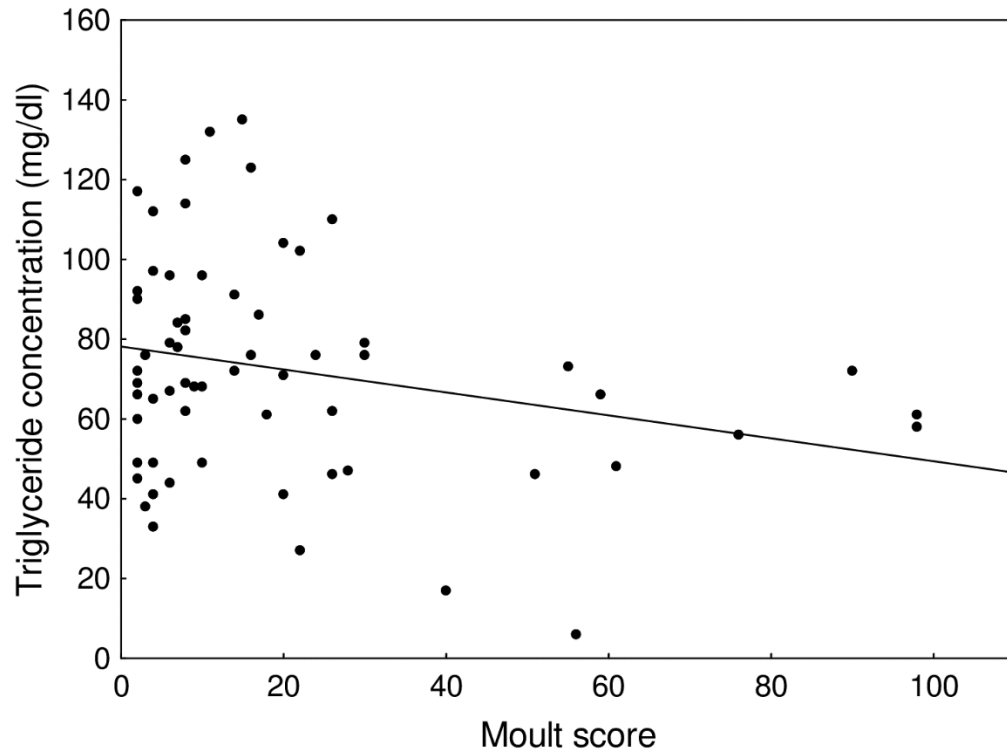


Table 1: Numbers of young common snipe in which different plasma parameters were analysed at three stages of the post-juvenile moult.

Plasma parameter	Moult stage		
	Before	Initial	Advanced
Total protein	299	171	58
Triglycerides	267	146	49
Glucose	213	103	37
Albumin	191	96	35
Uric acid	75	37	21

Table 2: Total plasma protein concentration in relation to the stages of post-juvenile moult and confounding variables in young common snipe migrating through central Poland. Reduced model $R^2 = 0.41$ ($F_{10,517} = 35.85$, $p < 0.001$). Significant predictors are marked in bold.

Factor	F	P
Full model		
Moult stage	3.46	0.032
Sex	2.30	0.13
Year	7.47	<0.001
Date	1.51	0.22
Hour	9.68	0.002
Reduced model		
Moult stage	3.13	0.045
Sex	2.12	0.15
Year	7.54	<0.001
Hour	9.14	0.003

Table 3: Plasma glucose concentration in relation to the stages of post-juvenile moult and confounding variables in young common snipe migrating through central Poland. Reduced model $R^2 = 0.16$ ($F_{8,344} = 7.96$, $p < 0.001$). Significant predictors are marked in bold.

Factor	F	p
Full model		
Moult stage	3.60	0.028
Sex	0.41	0.52
Year	14.21	< 0.001
Date	4.59	0.033
Hour	3.23	0.07
Reduced model		
Moult stage	3.74	0.025
Year	14.35	< 0.001
Date	4.82	0.029
Hour	3.38	0.07

Table 4: Plasma concentrations of albumin, triglycerides, and uric acid in relation to the stages of post-juvenile moult and confounding variables in young common snipe migrating through central Poland. Significant predictors are marked in bold.

Factor	Albumin		Triglycerides		Uric acid
	F	p	F	p	F
Moult stage	1.42	0.24	0.12	0.89	0.44
Sex	1.58	0.21	0.09	0.77	0.01
Year	9.01	< 0.001	10.23	< 0.001	0.30
Date	0.02	0.88	0.27	0.60	22.03
Hour	15.77	< 0.001	3.87	0.049	2.50